



**AN ANALYSIS OF SEXISM IN ENGLISH COURSEBOOKS IN
TERTIARY EDUCATION**

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TELİF HAKKI VE TEZ FOTOKOPİ İZİN FORMU

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Tez yazma sürecinde bilimsel ve etik ilkelere uyduğumu, yararlandığım tüm kaynakları kaynak gösterme ilkelerine uygun olarak kaynakçada belirttiğimi ve bu bölümler dışındaki tüm ifadelerin şahsıma ait olduğunu beyan ederim.

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ÖZ

Cinsiyet kimliği, aile ve eğitim de dahil olmak üzere birincil sosyalleştirme ajanları tarafından sağlanan sosyal etkileşimler ve modelleme yoluyla inşa edilir. Eğitimin temel materyallerinden biri olarak, ders kitaplarının bu inşa sürecinde ve öğrencilerin öz algılarının ve cinsiyete yönelik tutumlarının sürekli yeniden üretilmesi sürecinde önemli bir etkisi vardır. Bu amaçla, öğrencilerin bilgilerini tarafsız bir şekilde tanıtmaya hizmet etmesi gereken öğretim materyalleri yoluyla cinsiyetle ilgili basmakalıp görüşleri desteklememek son derece önemlidir. Bu anlamda, bu çalışma, farklı yayınevleri tarafından yayınlanan ve yükseköğretim İngilizce eğitiminde kullanılan iki set İngilizce ders kitabındaki cinsiyet temsillerini araştırmak için yola çıkmıştır. Metinsel verilerin standartlaştırılmış yorumlarının yapılması için kitapların yazılı içeriği nitel içerik analizi kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Cinsiyetin dengeli ve adil temsillerinin olup olmadığını veya cinsiyete ilişkin önyargılı görüşlerin ortaya çıkıp çıkmadığını belirlemek için ders kitapları meslekler, sıfatlar, spor, suç ve ev aktiviteleri / sorumlulukları açısından kapsamlı bir şekilde analiz edilmiştir. Sonuçlar, her iki sette de kadınların sıklıkla yeterince temsil edilmediğini ve gösterildikleri zaman, genel olarak sadece birkaç istisna dışında, öne çıktıkları rollerin güçlü toplumsal cinsiyet klişeleri ve cinsiyetçilik izlerini taşıdığını ortaya koymuştur. Kadınlık ve erkekliğe dair kalıplaşmış atıflar, kadın ve erkek karakterlerin tasvirleri açısından da sürdürülmüştür. Bu nedenle, bu çalışmanın sonuçları, cinsiyet dahil herhangi bir ayrımcılık içermemesi gereken ders kitaplarının içeriklerinin titizlikle gözden geçirilmesi için acil bir gerekliliği ortaya koymaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler : cinsiyet önyargısı, cinsiyet kalıpları, cinsiyet temsili, dil öğretim materyalleri, ders kitapları
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ABSTRACT

Gender identity is constructed by means of social interactions and modeling provided by the agents of primary socialization including family and education. As one of the primary materials of education, coursebooks have a significant influence in this process of construction and continuous reproduction of learners' self-perceptions and attitudes towards gender. To this end, it is of utmost importance not to bolster stereotypical views of gender through instructional materials that ought to serve the purpose of introducing learners' knowledge in an unbiased, impartial manner. In this sense, this study set out to investigate the gender representations in two sets of English language coursebooks published by different publishing houses and are used in tertiary level English education. The written content of the books was analyzed by using qualitative content analysis to make standardized interpretations of the textual data. In order to determine whether there are balanced and fair representations of gender or if biased views of gender are manifested, the coursebooks were analyzed thoroughly in terms of the attributions of occupations, adjectives, sports, crime and household activities/ responsibilities. The results have revealed that in both sets, females are frequently underrepresented and when they are, the roles that they are featured in are carrying strong traces of gender stereotypes and sexism with only a few exceptions overall. Stereotyped attributions of femininity and masculinity were also preserved in terms of portrayals of female and male characters. Therefore, the results of this study suggest the urgent necessity for a meticulous review of the contents of the coursebooks that are supposedly free of any discrimination, including gender.

Key Words : gender bias, gender stereotypes, gender representation, language teaching materials, coursebooks

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

“Humankind is made up of two sexes, women and men. Is it possible for them to grow by the improvement of only one part while the other is ignored? Is it possible that half of a mass is tied to earth with chains and the other half to soar into skies?”

Mustafa Kemal ATATÜRK

The perception of gender and roles that it assigns to individuals are established from very early childhood, on the grounds that gender is “ever-present in conversation, humor and conflict, and it is called upon to explain everything from driving styles to food preferences” (Eckert & Ginnet, 2013). It is so naturally embodied in the core of almost all everyday practices that its presence is rarely discerned and can be acquired effortlessly and unintentionally by individuals. Through the process of building an identity in the society that people are a part of, the roles they adopt are shaped in accordance with the models they observe from the environment they grow up in. In this process of constitution, schools are the main places for children to socialize and create a sense of belonging in a society in that they provide students the opportunity to interact with peers and teachers, and due to these interactions, they possess a profound impact on each other. Likewise, plenty of cultural, social norms and codes are transferred to students especially while teaching a foreign language; the materials that are produced or selected by teachers and/or policy makers present a wide range of norms, beliefs and characteristics that are to reflect the target culture. Therefore, instructional materials, particularly coursebooks, may be considered as the principal instruments to introduce models of language and they function as a resource that learners acquire the concept of “appropriate” behaviours from. The messages about social norms and agreements that are conveyed through instructional materials can be obvious or blatant, such as the roles that are attributed to the two genders in a dialogue. They may be one of the most effective mediators to support certain ideologies and reflect particular mindsets through various contexts whose primary purpose is to transfer language items. In sum, as the content of language is mostly presented in contexts that are or adapted from real

life; the possibility of stereotypes being superimposed on all sorts of linguistic input through language teaching materials requires major consideration.

1.1. Background of the study

Coursebooks are assigned an essential role in language teaching as they are the mediator that transfer the target culture and values (Bahman & Rahimi, 2010) as well as the language itself. In addition to the aim of language teaching, reflections of gender are ubiquitously embedded in coursebooks and with the content they provide, students are exposed to prescribed forms of gender through the visuals, examples, reading texts, discussion questions and activities presented which are likely to influence the mindsets of students in various respects. As Kramsch (1998) states, even the instruction of an international language such as English may impose Anglo-Saxon values such as individualism and pragmatism. Hence, the transmission of certain perceptions and values affect both learners' and teachers' behaviours, attitudes and worldviews, which could lead to the internalization of fossilized gender roles as well. By providing learners with models of language that are characterized by "male firstness", coursebooks play a crucial role in determining learners' perceptions of gender and the roles they are expected to present in society (Hall, 2014) in a biased manner. Considering the impact of coursebooks on learners in terms of familiarizing them with the social contexts and promoting their awareness of the target culture; it is essential that their contents to be examined intensively in many aspects including cultural values, global issues and gender (Söylemez, 2010).

Patriarchal depictions of gender posit certain attitudes and characteristics establish a subordinate, secondary place for women. These characteristics depict ideals for both genders, such as physical weakness, being connected to others, passivity and nurturance for females and contrastively, independence, physical power, expressiveness and competitiveness for males (Heimer & De Coster, 2001). These views are reflected in various areas including language. According to Thomas (2004), gender bias and sexism in language display two genders in an asymmetrical way, "as if members of one sex were somehow less completely human, less complex, and had fewer rights than members of the other sex" (p. 76). Conjointly, Sunderland (1992) asserts that it alienates and offends females when they are attributed to relatively limited and restricted behavioural, social and linguistic roles. These biased views of gender are so commonplace in language that they are frequently

accepted without questioning if there is any truth to them, as if they are scientific facts (Eckert & Ginet, 2013). As a central instrument in the procedure of comprehending and making sense of oneself and the happenings around, it is a challenge to put gender into question objectively. Which is why the content of educational materials, especially coursebooks, require an elaborate examination from various perspectives. In this sense, many studies that reveal gender representations in coursebooks have been carried out since the 1970s (Cincotta, 1978; Hartman & Judd, 1978, Hellinger, 1980; Porreca, 1984; Doğan, 1994; Arslan, 2000; Sivaslıgil; 2006, Söylemez, 2010, Diktaş; 2011; Demir & Yavuz, 2017). Results have indicated that women are often underrepresented and when they are, they are portrayed as emotional and weak characters, whereas men are shown as strong, dominant characters who are occupied with meaningful and somewhat difficult tasks. Although some progress has been made in terms of lessening sexist and stereotyped portrayals of gender in coursebooks, truly unbiased and balanced gender representations have not yet been attained.

1.2. Statement of the problem

Societies are structured around certain values and culture that are taught along with the components of language, either explicitly or implicitly through the fundamentals of language instruction such as the materials employed to provide a structured and logically ordered sequence of language items. Research have shown that these materials, especially coursebooks, have been promoting gender stereotypes and the models they provide through the written, visual and auditory content are mostly problematic in terms of the equality in gender representations. The implicit transfer of values, behaviours or attitudes exist in the actions or words as a part of everyday life of a society, which is reflected in coursebooks within the scope of hidden curriculum (Jerald, 2006). These reflections of female and male characters might have an inexorable influence on learners' perceptions of gender roles, especially the ones that are relatively younger.

Considering the information provided above and the great dependence on coursebooks in the Turkish educational system, being aware of possible sexism in teaching materials is vitally important, especially because it is so profoundly internalized in both language and society. Sexism and gender stereotypes should not be promoted by the elements of education which are supposed to widen learners' horizons, not to limit them. Therefore, the investigation of the hidden curriculum in language coursebooks is extremely necessary.

1.3. Importance and Purpose of the Study

Previous research in the relevant literature have revealed that there are a limited number of roles attributed to female characters while men are empowered by being shown with much more various, interesting occupations. In general, female characters are presented in restrictive situations in which they have unflattering and disadvantageous positions compared to men; they are often portrayed as individuals who are in need.

Education and society have a reciprocal influence on each other. In the aim of keeping individuals within certain boundaries of society, one of the main purposes of education is to create and transform individuals into teachable and obedient beings (Foucault, 1981). Accordingly, while the values and prejudices of a society may impact and be reflected in the educational content (Cunningsworth, 1995), the opposite is also possible; education may alter and enhance those elements as well. According to Wood (2009), education aids the formation of gender identity and preservation of conventional gender roles and stereotypes. Owing to the fact that coursebooks are predominantly accepted as trustworthy and infallible information sources, the content and knowledge they present are ordinarily and uncritically taken for granted to be right and accepted by learners (Skliar, 2007). Considering that coursebooks are substantial tools of language education, it can be claimed with confidence that they ought to be analysed and evaluated from many different aspects such as the values they transfer either explicitly or implicitly; especially about gender roles and possible promotions of sexism.

To that end, the purpose of the current study is to investigate how genders are represented in English Language Teaching (hereafter referred as “ELT”) coursebooks used in tertiary level education, in terms of the portrayal of the two sexes with respect to the attribution of occupations, roles they play in relationships, personality traits and their visibility: whether any inequitable and prejudicial positions were suggested male and female characters. In this respect, this study aims to shed a light on the gender policies of two commonly-used language coursebooks in foreign language instruction in Turkey; Face2Face by Cambridge University Press (Set A) and Speakout by Pearson Education Limited (Set B). Levels of the books, A2 and B1, are chosen carefully considering the density of the written materials in terms of the quantity and the content of the texts. By using content analysis to investigate the verbal contents of the coursebooks, it is aimed to determine whether imbalanced and discriminatory gender representations were promoted and reinforced.

1.4. Research Questions

The present study seeks to answer the following questions.

1. How are genders represented in the written materials of (ELT) coursebooks used in tertiary level language education in Turkey?

- Is the image of women represented equally within the social and cultural contexts of the ELT coursebooks used in tertiary level language education in Turkey?

2. Is there a fair distribution in terms of the attributions of:

- occupations,
- adjectives,
- crime,
- sports,
- household responsibilities in the written materials of the coursebooks?

3. Are there any elements of gender stereotypes or discrimination in terms of the portrayals of females and males in the contexts and co-texts of the coursebooks?

1.5. Limitations of the Study

The coursebook sets that are selected in this research are commonly used in language education at universities in Turkey and the scope of this study is limited to the written material of the coursebooks (passages, dialogues, example sentences), visual or audio material were not taken into consideration. Moreover, the study only examines the student's books of the coursebook sets, other components such as teacher's books and workbooks are beyond the boundaries of this study. It is worth noting that, in an effort to broaden the scope of the research and establish a more comprehensive framework, increasing the number of the categories that are under question or diversifying the sets that are being investigated would accentuate the findings and make greater contribution to the field.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In this chapter, the distinction between “sex” and “gender” are presented and “gender roles” are defined. Then, gender stereotypes and theories on the construction of gender roles and stereotypes are elaborated in the light of the literature. In addition, the factors that are of vital importance in this construction, such as socialization and certain components of education are discussed to illustrate the major theoretical pillars of the present study.

2.1. Gender vs. Sex

Although they refer to two related but different concepts, in daily conversations, the terms “gender” and “sex” can be used interchangeably, which generates the need for a clarification and distinction of their meanings. In general terms, “sex” stands for the biological and anatomical difference between men and women, whereas “gender” refers to the social, cultural and psychological differences between females and males (Giddens, 2005). Gender is a “multidimensional construct” that constitutes on the biological sex in order to differentiate the expectations, responsibilities and assigned roles of individuals (Oliffe & Greaves, 2011). As Wood (2012) states, biology affects the way individuals develop but it does not entirely determine personality and behaviour. In other words, gender serves to the aim of distributing roles and statuses to females and males such as expected or desirable behaviours or labelling some occupations as particularly appropriate for females or males. Parallely, Eckert and Ginet (2013) define sex as a classification on primarily reproductive potential, and gender as a social buildup based on biological sex which would exaggerate the biological differences even further. According to Lindsey (2015), what is considered “feminine” or “masculine” by society, is a component of gender. Indeed, the domains in which people define and categorize themselves and others as male and female and decide on dichotomous stereotypes to interpret what happens in their surroundings are all rooted in gender.

As Lorber and Farrell (1991) state, gender, like culture, is constantly produced, conveyed and re-generated through and as a result of social interaction. It is everywhere: consciously or subconsciously, people think, act, explain and justify in accordance with gender arrangements. It changes the expectations, approaches or reactions given to certain situations. To illustrate, an image of a father with a baby on a bus might be considered as heart-warming or interesting, while the same image with a mother is mostly viewed as ordinary or “normal”. The reasons behind the mostly unconscious difference of perceptions in these scenarios are strongly linked to the roles that are tailored to father and mother figures, which are indisputable productions of gender.

2.2. Gender Roles

As Shaw (2000) claims, gender roles are the proper behaviours that are decided and thought by society for members of the two sexes. They provide cues about the sort of characteristics and expectations that shape the boundaries for individuals. Through these roles, society prescribes certain aspects as natural and “normal” ways to be (Wood, 2009). Gender establishes the social duties of males and females; the responsibilities, their rights and the roles they are expected to occupy. Furthermore, it assists individuals in the process of evaluating, interpreting and justifying people and their actions (Eckert & Ginot, 2013). Therefore, a combination of norms, definitions and placements of people in society based on their gender, in other words, gender roles, are pre-decided and thoroughly instilled into individuals through the agency of society.

Starting from birth, boys are raised to be tough, active and independent, whereas girls, in contrast, are raised to be passive, maternal and affectionate. In other words, through the assistance of gender, certain characteristics or “roles” are built and appointed to individuals in every aspect of daily life. These prearranged roles also affect the self-perceptions of individuals regarding their abilities and exert influence on their career aspirations that may lead them to show more interest in some professions over others as a result of the gender-differentiated expectations of other people, mostly parents (Eccles, 1990).

Being the first and one of the most effective role models in the process of children’s establishment of self-perception, parents have a significant impact on their children. How they treat their sons and daughters differently or even the difference in the reactions given when their children fail influence their perseverance and acceptance of failure; it even

influences the formation of self-perceptions of children. That is to say, parents might acknowledge their daughters' abilities less than their sons', or they might encourage their sons more against the obstacles they may face (Parsons, Adler & Kaczala, 1982). Independent from the actual level of competence children have, the image they construct of themselves is shaped mostly by the patterns they are expected to take form accordingly. Research suggest that both parents and teachers have lower expectancies for girls than for boys regarding their academic achievements (Maccoby & Jacklin, 1976). These stereotypical beliefs regarding the potential of girls and boys are pivotal determinants of how they would perform in certain subjects. Therefore, the more children are expected to succeed and given the opportunity to do so, the more they are likely to meet these expectations.

In addition to the impact that the attitude of parents has on children, the division of household chores (work done to maintain the life around the house such as cleaning and cooking) and domestic activities convey plenty of hidden messages. Not only the household duties associated with each parent, but also the assignments children are appointed as helpers around the house assist in the process of creating roles for genders. Shelton and John (1996) suggest that regardless of their employment status, women are responsible for abundance of household chores. Although the research investigating the division of chores around the house were focused on Western communities, it would not be misleading to generalize the findings to different parts of the world.

The process of gender role formation starts in the family and children keep on constructing their beliefs and perceptions about gender in school. The social interaction environment in school provides children with the opportunity to socialize with their peers, and through this socialization, they observe and adopt new patterns of behaviour. Following the family, one of the most important agents affecting children's beliefs and perceptions is, without doubt, the teacher. The impact that teachers have on children's beliefs and achievements may occur directly and indirectly through classroom interaction. Teachers' beliefs or biased approaches on gender may influence their attitudes towards the students in many aspects. According to Sadker and Sadker (2010), the reflection of these beliefs and biases may occur in classroom practices in terms of the types of feedback given to boys and girls, time allocated for each gender and possible discrimination in grading. Additionally, as Sadker and Sadker (2010) point out, there may be an imbalanced distribution of roles in some tasks and classroom activities due to the assumption of boys being more willing to and skilful for tough

assignments than girls. As previously stated, the impact of teachers' beliefs and presumptions that are reflected in classroom practices are one of the most influential factors affecting children's process of gender role construction, right after their parents.

2.3. Gender Stereotypes

Stereotypes are social categories in which people are identified and "grouped", in accordance with their ethnicity, gender, race, sexual orientation, and so on (Basow, 1986). Regardless of the distinctive traits that make them individuals, these categories set expectations and pre-agreed characteristics for people. The practice of stereotyping involves reduction and simplification (Talbot, 2013); it is a cumulative build-up of "normals" and "others" in order to interpret the actions of others.

The traits, behaviours and roles that are commonly classified as "feminine" and "masculine" are mostly instilled and assigned by the members of a given culture to attribute behaviours to and expectations from each gender (Basow, 1992) and these are called gender stereotypes. The reason why these attributions are called "stereotypes" is that the assumption of these characteristics and social positions ascribed to men and women apply to "all" men and women (Mkuchu, 2004). These widely-accepted overgeneralizations include traits such as toughness and capability for masculinity; while femininity is associated with emotionally expressiveness, warmth and nurture (Basow, 1992). Although some variations have been encountered in Western societies such as English, American and Australian, majority of stereotypes are mostly similar.

As people grow up and learn about the world around them, they acquire the anticipated features of genders and internalize those roles and stereotypes belong to them. This process of constructing beliefs helps them normalize and form behaviour patterns for themselves and others. Surely, not everyone adopts these sets of beliefs to the same degree, but more or less, everyone is under the influence of them while they perceive and evaluate other people. By this means, stereotypes evolve and they maintain throughout generations. As Eckert and Ginnet (2013) state; gender stereotypes are ever-present in almost all aspects of daily life; people use gender/stereotypes to explain almost everything: actions, preferences, success and so on. These stereotypes are so naturally shared, accepted and reproduced that even the need for questioning them is frequently considered unnecessary or being paranoid.

Considering that they are so consensually shared within large groups of people, their effects and consequences can be vastly destructive (Macrae & Gringor & Hewstone, 1996).

Stereotypes about gender begin to influence one's judgement about individuals even before they are born. An example Basow (1992) presents illustrates the situation very well; she poses a question for the reader to imagine what type of toys they would give to a boy or girl (that they do not have any information about) as a present. If there is a distinction between the choice of presents to a particular child and an unknown one based on their gender, it is possible that the choice is made with the assumptions about female and male interests. In this regard, stereotypes about gender are not just about grown men or women; they attribute all sorts of expectations to people from the very early stages of life.

According to Basow (1992), there are several ways in which stereotypes operate and one of them is by functioning as a "perceptual filter" through which people selectively recognize and remember actions that support the stereotypes they have in mind. As people only notice and remember certain behaviours, there is little to no possibility of changing their precogitated beliefs. Notwithstanding the fact that they notice examples of actions that do not correspond to the stereotype, they choose to overlook or consider them as just an exception. Another way that stereotypes operate is by establishing a "self-fulfilling prophecy". If, for instance, females are frequently perceived in a certain way, such as not having problem-solving abilities, they may consider themselves that way and develop those characteristics or take actions accordingly.

Even though gender stereotypes are encountered in many aspects of daily life, some of the components that are mostly considered as "feminine" and "masculine" are about personality (such as gentleness and dominance), occupations (such as pre-school teacher and truck driver), physical appearance (such as broad shoulders and grace), and role behaviours (such as caretaker of children and head of household) (Basow, 1992). Although these stereotypes are not as strong as they were in the past; they still have a critical influence on our perceptions. As previously stated, stereotypes are likely to bring about differences in behaviour instead of indicating actual differences (Basow, 1992).

2.3.1. The Construction of Gender Roles and Stereotypes

As they grow up, children are taught to be functioning, satisfactory and congruous parts of society; they learn how to act appropriately and be accepted as a member. From the moment

they are born, children are dressed in pink or blue and carry on “doing” and “maintaining” gender in various ways. These stereotyped roles and statuses that are perpetuated aim to preserve the organization of a consistent structure of a society. Ascribed to this pre-designed framework, children construct their definitions and ideas of gender. As a strong influencer and a key component of one’s self-image (Meece, 1992), gender roles are so thoroughly acquired that the process of gender role construction is something that needs to be examined deeply. The environment, parents, teachers, peers, media and coursebooks, they all contribute to the construction of gender identities and roles. One’s learned roles, duties and responsibilities influence their character, shape their viewpoints and the person they become eventually.

In the same way, social roles, duties and behaviours that are determined according to the gender and statuses that individuals are identified with (often stereotypical ones) are enforced and continually practiced by society. As an analogy, while the status of mother requires roles including self-sacrifice, homemaking, love and nurturing; the status of father involves roles such as breadwinner, disciplinarian and the decision maker in the household (Lindsey, 2015). Even though their intention may not be nurturant, women’s activities tend to be associated with nurturance. In an illustration Eckert and Ginnet (2013) state, the scene of a woman cooking might commonly be perceived as her taking care of the family whereas the one in which a man does the cooking may not be viewed in quite the same way. Although preparing and serving food on a domestic level is associated with women, the profession of cooking (especially in haute cuisine) is still a male-dominated area (Eckert & Ginnet, 2013). All things considered, the construction and maintenance of gender roles and stereotypes are important points that need to be questioned extensively.

2.3.1.1. Theories on the Construction of Gender Roles and Stereotypes

In order to propose an explanation for the construction of gender, various disciplines offer different perspectives as gender is an issue that has crossing paths with a plethora of different disciplines such as biology, psychology and anthropology (Lindsey, 2015). Most of these theories ground on different aspects of development but mostly they centre upon the early childhood that is a period in which children begin to learn about concepts of gender, categorize and associate certain characteristics with the two sexes. Focusing on different aspects, there are four primary theories on the construction of gender: Psychodynamic -

Psychoanalytic Theories, Cognitive Developmental Theory, Gender-Schema Theory and Social Learning Theory, all of which will be defined briefly in the following chapters.

2.3.1.1.1. Psychodynamic-Psychoanalytic Theories

Pioneered by Sigmund Freud, psychodynamic – psychoanalytic theories regard gender construction as a period starting from the birth. Underlining the intrapsychic processes that gender development is governed by (Bandura & Bussey, 1999), Freudian theory emphasizes the early childhood and the interactions between the caregiver and children; how these early experiences shape one's perception of gender identity for themselves and others. Based on Sigmund Freud's extensive investigation of how both genders develop gender identity, this theory suggests that as children grow up, they identify themselves with and internalize their same-sex parent following different stages of development in which they experience sorts of conflicts between themselves and their parents. The theory suggests that girls and boys go through the same phase differently as in their being attracted to the opposite-sex parent and blaming the same-sex parent for the frustration they experience (Basow, 1992). Afterwards, these hostile feelings evolve into an admiration and result in the identification with the same-sex parent, which leads to the construction of gender roles and the adoption of sex-typed behaviours and characteristics according to Freud's take on relevant approach.

Freud's theory relies greatly on biological factors, however, a great deal of factors causing individual differences such as the impact of situational factors and the influence of people other than the parents are highly overlooked. Feminist psychodynamic thinkers such as Chodorow and Miller separate from Freud on the "anatomy-is-destiny" part of the theory and they hypothesize that being brought up by a mother or a female figure lead to boys and girls to construct different personality traits. While girls construct a more "personal and embedded style of being", boys reject this identification with their mother and construct a more "abstract and impersonal style of being" (Basow, 1992, p.119).

2.3.1.1.2. Social Learning Theory

In contrast with Psychodynamic-Psychoanalytic approach, social learning theory emphasizes the impact of social practices and observation, which lead to modelling of behaviours, attitudes and emotional reactions of others (Bandura, 1977) and focuses on the behaviours that are observable and alterable with the assistance of different types of

interventions. Concordantly, it is suggested that boys and girls are taught different roles and they are rewarded and reprimanded for different behaviours as well. Therefore, their environments and social interactions that children encounter teach them the roles and sex-appropriate / sex-inappropriate behaviours in all sorts of different ways, directly and indirectly (Basow, 1992).

As children tend to imitate their same-sex parent while establishing their gender identity, the amount of observation they get to experience becomes a substantial factor. Lynn (1959) posits that since masculine-sex-typed behaviours and activities are not openly observable as feminine ones, boys' construction of gender identity becomes a more abstract one compared to girls as mothers are more observable than fathers who are absent oftentimes. Nonetheless, sex-inappropriate behaviours are more strictly criticized and reprimanded for boys. A case in point, if two siblings put on dresses as a game, while the girl is reinforced for that behaviour by being said that she looks pretty, the boy is warned about how he looks silly and should not do that again (Sammons, 2019). If a girl dresses up as a boy or imitates her father in a sex-typed behaviour such as repairing something around the house, the reaction that is given to her probably would not be as harsh as the previous example. These verbal rewards and punishments are provided by parents, peers, and other people that children interact with in social contexts.

Furthermore, this theory suggests that awareness of gender differences in many behaviours increases with age. Though, the relationship between age and degree of gender stereotyping is not linear; the evidence that most of the stereotyping is constructed between the ages 5 and 8 is strong (Kohlberg, Ullian, 1974; Plumb & Cowan, 1984; Urberg, 1982 as cited in Basow, 1992). Taking everything into account, social learning theory prioritizes the impact of observing and duplicating models and the tendency of individuals towards choosing behaviours that would generate positive outcomes and refraining from the ones that would bring about trouble. Although this theory offers valuable insights in order to analyse and understand the development of gender identity, there are certain aspects in which this theory falls short to explain, such as the position children are put into as passive receivers of rewards and punishments. A girl might be rewarded for masculine behaviour and might still manage to hold on to other aspects of her feminine roles (Lindsey, 2015). Furthermore, as there are more than only one type of family consisting of a mother and a father, the diversity may result from divorce or single parenting, blended families that include different role models

as parents and same-sex couples that are raising a child. Therefore, the models that children are exposed to may not be so homogenic and monotype. In brief, the models provided by family and school may differ greatly and boys and girls may choose different paths and participate in the process more actively than social learning theory suggests.

2.3.1.1.3. Cognitive Developmental Theory

As opposed to social learning theory, cognitive developmental theory emphasizes the child as the primary agent in the process of gender construction, not the environment. In other words, children actively take part and comprehend the concept of gender based on their experiences instead of solely being passive receivers of positive and negative feedbacks provided by people such as their parents, peers, and others (Bussey & Bandura, 1999). Subsequently, the awareness of gender identity and gender roles is associated with children's cognitive development.

There are several stages of cognitive development before children create an understanding of how the concept of gender works. Until about the ages 4 to 7, children are not usually capable of abstract reasoning (Basow, 1992). Likewise, according to Kohlberg (1966), until a certain age, children cannot interpret the physical constancy and unable to form a fixed gender identity. They can only distinguish genders according to appearance, e.g. they associate women with long hair.

According to Kohlberg (1966), gender development occurs as a three-stage process: first, children acquire their gender labelling, where they learn which group they are a member of; boys or girls. Then follows the gender stability, where they comprehend that their gender is stable and will not change over time. Lastly, they establish gender constancy. They realize that their gender is fixed and invariant, even if they do cross-gender activities such as wearing a dress.

In contrast to Kohlberg's standpoint, Thompson (1975, as cited in Bandura & Bussey, 1999) states that despite the fact that gender constancy is not acquired until about ages 5-7, 2-year-olds manage to categorize toys, clothes and appliances as feminine and masculine. Therefore, gender constancy is not a prerequisite for children to construct gender identity.

In brief, cognitive developmental theory centralises on how children's cognitions of gender take place and their understanding of gender as the outcome of three-staged process of

cognitive development including gender identity (which category they belong to-boy or girl), gender stability (gender identity does not change with time), and gender constancy (their gender identity will not be influenced by the changes of activities or appearance).

2.3.1.1.4. Gender Schema Theory

Combining the theories of social learning and cognitive development, gender schema theory proposes an integrative approach which is based on the assumption that children construct organized structures of knowledge, in other words, schemas, in order to create gender-related interpretations of themselves and others (Martin & Ruble, 2004) along with the recognition of the influence of cultural factors. These interpretations have an impact on children's behaviour and the way they think (Martin & Ruble, 2004). As social learning theory, gender schema theory suggests that sex-typing is a learned phenomenon; therefore it is neither inexorable nor inevitable (Bem, 1983). Similar to cognitive developmental theory, gender schema theory suggests that sex-typing is a cognitive process that is dependent on the child. However, cognitive developmental theory assumes that gender constancy is a must for the child to develop gender orientations whereas in gender schema theory, solely the mastery of gender identity and the capability to label themselves and others as males and females are required for the development of gender schema (Martin & Halverson, 1981).

A schema is a cognitive framework that provides people to interpret and organize information in a meaningful way. This readiness to identify and sort relevant information properly into categories such as feminine and masculine help them code certain behaviours and traits that they observe from other people and apply to their own thinking and behaviour (Bem, 1983). In accordance with this schema, children perceive and make sense of the world around them in the process of sex-typing. This theory resembles the cognitive developmental theory in the requirement of a cognitive-readiness in order to code and categorize the concepts of being feminine and masculine, and placing oneself into these groups. Likewise, it is parallel to social learning theory in the acknowledgement of the codes and cultural myths that are provided by society. Bem (1981) emphasizes that this theory deals with the process of dividing the world into two groups as "feminine" and "masculine", not what the two groups contain.

In sum, gender schema theory emphasizes the gender-based schematic processing as it is a theory about the process, not content (Bem, 1983). According to this theory, gender

construction includes a series of cognitive classification of gender related concepts as an outcome of learning from the environment and coding treats as feminine and masculine; which would eventually result in the evaluation of oneself and their own behaviours, attitudes and properly adjusting to society.

2.4. The Construction of Gender Roles and Stereotypes through Socialization and Education

All individuals are born and raised in a society in which they acquire the fundamentals of being functioning members of it; where certain shared meanings are agreed on (Arslan, 2000). The primary aim of this complex collection of social norms is to govern the social life by attaining meanings to actions, statuses, genders and so on. Through the medium of these “shared meanings” and essential elements of culture and society are transferred to generations through an accumulation of interactions, in other words, socialization. The process of socialization facilitates the justification and perpetuation of this ever-repeating process by conforming to the roles and manners linked to particular groups and expecting the same from others. Hence, it is assured that the basic needs and expectations of society are met in anticipated manners (Lindsey, 2015). These guidelines are built according to the environment in which children find role models, observe others and receive messages concerning the everyday practices – beliefs, desires, actions and so on (Eckert & Ginot, 2013). The contribution of role models in the development of concepts about gender is that they provide a foresight of probabilities and to equip individuals with influence, purposes and hope about the future (Wilson, 1993). Therefore, it is safe to claim that the function of role models are of vital importance. Not surprisingly, children find these models at home, the first-ever place to socialize for an individual where they interact with family members and begin to acquire role behaviours; the family endows children with the necessary skills to function in a variety of social situations in which they will fill plenty of different roles in the future (Lindsey, 2015).

Later on, the social environments in which children determine their role models expand and alter as they grow up and get attached to new roles such as student, peer, or friend. Thereby begins a new process of continuous modeling and internalizing; deliberately or not, children observe and perceive guidelines for appropriate behaviours, lifestyles and ways of being from their peers, teachers, and educational activities. All the elements that constitute the

social world of school play a part in the meaning formation of various types of social roles and interactions (Waller, 1932). An individual's establishment of gender identity and concepts of right and wrong rely notably on these elements, therefore, it is of great importance to be aware of their influence and evaluate them rigorously.

2.4.1. The Role of Family in the Construction of Gender Roles and Stereotypes

“While Dick is allowed to cross the street, use scissors, or go to a friend's house by himself, Jane must wait until she is older.”(Lindsey, 2015, p.79)

Providing the primary place where children gain their first-ever values and social skills (Lindsey, 2015), first and the most influential agent of socialization is without any doubt, the family. Parents teach their children basic skills including walking, talking, eating, and other types of skills such as behaviours and manners for the children to socialize properly. Although the traditional family schema and lifestyle have changed over the years, which provide children with the opportunity to interact with other people than solely their parents, the principal role of the family has remained unalterable. The models and opportunities of socialization they provide and whether gender stereotypes are endorsed in the family or not may influence children's development of gender roles and adoption of stereotypes .

Families' expectations begin to set from the moment they learn the sex of the baby and this is also one of the determinants of the kind of parents they will become. When the sex is known, even the talk of the baby transforms into gendered terms. Parents tend to refer to the boys as active and kicking, girls on the other hand, as calm and quiet (Lindsey, 2015). This viewpoint also has a huge impact on their parenthood. Boys are seen as stronger and are usually encouraged to handle difficult tasks and allowed to engage in new and interesting activities more than girls (Söylemez, 2010). Contrastively, girls are seen as more fragile and tend to be protected rather than supported to try harder to achieve things. This approach of parents applies to the acceptance of failure as well. It can be claimed with confidence that families expect more from their sons and are not as acceptive as they are to their daughters. While the belief and encouragement given to boys mostly serve as positive reinforcement, the pressure that is placed upon them may have a negative impact on their success rate. Nonetheless, the lack of belief or the acceptance of failure when it happens to girls also operate as negative reinforcement and may have a diminishing influence on their chance of being successful in any aspect of life.

As stated above, children take their parents as primary role models. Therefore, activities parents take part in, their approaches to certain situations and actions they engage in constitute perfect examples. Seeing her mother playing sports, a girl will grow up with the idea that it is normal for girls to play sports, similarly, seeing the father taking care of the new baby, a boy will embrace the idea of father as a caregiver and normalize the image of men carrying out household chores and parental responsibilities (Cook-Grumpe, 1995).

In short, considering the time they spend together in the early stages of life and all the input children receive in terms of their parents' attitudes, beliefs and interests, the impact that family preserve as the primary example setters in an individual's process of developing gendered roles and adopting the stereotypes that they observe from around can be significant.

2.4.2. The Role of School in the Construction of Gender Roles and Stereotypes

Functioning as a stepping stone for individuals to develop and realize their talents and be equipped with the intellectual and social skills, school is the ultimate environment that prepares children for both social life and world of work, subsequent to the family. While one of the main objectives of education is to provide students with academic knowledge, the transfer of the accumulation of cultural heritage to new generations is as important as the prior one. In this way, it is ensured that the conventional -and mostly sexist- perspectives of society is acquired and maintained through generations.

School is the optimal place to provide children with the messages on gender role patterns through activities, modeling of the teacher and materials that are put to use. Each and every component of school is filled with messages that expose students to attitudes, lifestyles and examples to observe and model. As Lindsey (2015) asserts, while gender role models in the family function as a foundation, the influence of peers and teacher on gender socialization of children is even more efficient. Likewise, Bucher (1998) argues that it is possible for a teacher to convince their students of something even they are not convinced of themselves. Although they do not advertently maintain sexist notions, behaviours that teachers choose to reprimand or encourage contribute to the constitution of gender stereotypes. In a study they conducted, Sadker and Sadker (1994) asked students what it would be like to become a member of the opposite sex. Girls found the idea appealing and interesting: they stated that they would be able to be and do anything they wanted and would make more money if they were boys. On the other hand, boys thought the idea was demeaning and humiliating: one of

the boys even claimed if he had turned into a girl, he would kill himself. While this statement speaks for itself, the results of the study draw the picture succinctly. Conventional portrayals of genders are imposed on children such as bread-winning roles for boys and domestic and nurturing roles for girls. In this sense, boys are taught to perceive the value of competitiveness, individualism and independence, whereas girls are taught to appreciate the value of nurturance, which foster the tendency to stereotype genders. Eventually, children of both genders take on positions prescribed to the group they are a part of in order to sustain the social norms that constitute the nucleus of society.

2.5. Language and Gender

“Ideology is most effective when its workings are least visible.” (Fairclough, 1989, p.85)

As a vehicle of communication, language conveys the elements of the culture surrounding it (Hartman & Judd, 1978). Along with the linguistic aspects, learning a new language widens the learner’s horizon and help them grow new appreciations. Through language, a whole new world of a new culture is presented in language classes both implicitly and explicitly. Thus, the linguistic habits of the speakers, the standards of a language that is used and the content of the material through which the language is introduced play a substantial role in the formation of linguistic behaviours, which eventually affect the speakers’ conception of the world.

Amongst other factors such as cultural notions, characteristics of individuals and social networks they belong to, gender influences the linguistic behaviour as a consequence of its huge impact on other elements that are related to linguistic behaviours (Çakıcı, 2011). Therefore, study of language and discourse reveals the ideology and meaning beyond the surface as well as what is being said. According to McCarthy and Carter (1994), language is the means by which people produce and encode beliefs and values, also, make sense of the world around them (Cameron, 1985). Similarly, Fairclough (1998) asserts that language use is a social practice in which ideologies and notions are transmitted: this transmission is not only the determinant of social structures and ideologies but also an outcome of language.

One of the notions that is perpetuated and reproduced through the use of language is indeed, gender bias or sexism. Lakoff (1973) proposed “The Dominance Model”, arguing that the difference in language use is a result of women’s subordinate social status. That is, the reflection of gender differences like assigning females to less powerful roles including the

use of hedges (words such as might, assume, doubt, etc.), tag questions (such as “That’s false, *isn’t it?*”), somewhat empty adjectives (adorable, divine, etc.), apologizing more (“I’m sorry, but I think...”) and avoiding making firm statements. Most women are raised to acquire and use this “women’s language” more or less, which would later be an excuse for others to not to take her seriously as a human being: if a girl rejects to talk like a lady, she is ridiculed for being “unfeminine”, however, if she does, again she is ridiculed for not being able to think clearly (Lakoff, 1973). She further argues that the reason behind this preference is because women are not as sure about themselves and their opinions as men, and they are brought up in male-dominated, gender-biased society where acting subordinate to men is reinforced for females (1973).

Language affects people’s perceptions of what is “normal”, proper and expected (Lindsey, 2015). When one gender is associated with certain situations and professions, the other is excluded from mental representations and remains unexpressed. As sexist language is used, written, read and normalized, boys and girls internalize stereotyped beliefs about genders in the process of primary socialization they experience at school.

2.6. The Interactive Relation of Language and Society in terms of Gender

Language is a complex concept that is both the determinant and a product of the social norms of its speakers. The cognitive process of the receiver is influenced directly by the linguistic choices that are made by the speaker (Menegatti & Rubini, 2017). Gender stereotypes promoted by the semantic labels that are associated with certain words influence the perceptions of people. To give an instance, Hartman and Judd (1978) mention the definitions of the words “manly” as strong, brave, virile and resolute, and “womanly” as weak, gentle and modest in Random House Dictionary (1966). These outdated definitions reflect that while certain qualities are regarded as acceptable and / or praiseworthy for one sex, they are bizarre and reprehensible for the other (Hartman & Judd, 1978).

Although it is thought that the artificial changes are not embraced by people who use the language easily, the evidence that people do not resist to change as long as gender stereotypes stays the same (Lindsey, 2015). Use of “he” as a pronoun for referring to a third person of unknown gender, in other words, “generic” he, used to be considered grammatically correct (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002). Even though the generic use of “he” was regarded as a proper substitute, the fact that it brings a mental representation of a male eventually perpetuate the

notion of females to be regarded as “the second sex”. Thus, the use of sexist language and lack of the image of females lead to underrepresentation of women, which may dissuade them from even trying to get in to male-dominated areas (Menegatti & Rubini, 2017). In order to prevent the harm of sexist language and change it into being as gender-neutral as possible, use of “they” or “he/she” as third person singular pronoun and adopting of “Ms” instead of “Mrs” when referring to adult females are some of the attempts that are becoming widespread (Lindsey, 2015).

In essence, considering the fact that language is a system which evolves and changes as long as it is alive and in use, there are ways to avoid sexist language and change the standards at micro and macro levels.

2.7. Curriculum

Curriculum is the framework that establishes the plan of the academic content and the skills that students are expected to learn, the learning aims and objectives that are planned to be met, and the assessments that are to be used to evaluate the learning in an educational institution over a period of time. The methods that are to be followed, a variety of instructional practices and organization of content is provided in curriculum. It also determines the scope and sequence, sets expectations for learning, and functions as a guide for teachers to prepare and/or choose the materials that would reinforce the process and efficiently facilitate learning.

Richards (1984) asserts that the aim of language curriculum development is to construct efficient, relevant and effective language teaching programs that meet the needs adequately. He points out that the main focus of language teaching as the problem of specifying the content to be taught (since language is a huge amount of content to teach) and developing appropriate methods to transfer that content (1984).

For someone who is not involved in education, a curriculum might be defined as just a combination of educational practices and academic content. However, there is more to it than that. Richards(2005) states that curriculum planners ought to acknowledge both the present and long-term needs of learners and society along with their own opinions and ideologies while developing a curriculum. Therefore, within the educational activities and teaching materials such as books, texts, dialogues and pictures, students are exposed to the values and beliefs of people who design and plan the materials or the authorities that choose

them. In other words, as well as the knowledge and the skills that are explicitly taught, there are implicitly transmitted norms and values within the materials and the whole experience of schooling called as “hidden curriculum”.

2.7.1. Hidden Curriculum

There are several definitions in an attempt to explain what hidden curriculum is, however, the whole concept is still not easy to fully cover. Briefly, the term “hidden curriculum” or “unofficial curriculum” refers to the covert elements of the curriculum such as implicit norms, behaviours and values that are promoted and transferred alongside with the formal curriculum (Jerald, 2006) that can be both deliberate and unintentional. Surely, it is possible for students to perceive values and adapt to the rules of society subconsciously as an outcome of different components of school such as a coursebook, a teacher or even their peers (Novosel, 2015). Gutek (1988) claims that the overall aim of imposing values and behaviours to students is to support and sustain a system; therefore, there is also an ideological side to the hidden curriculum. Although the concept evokes mostly negative connotations, the values that are commonly promoted in order to preserve the conventional, sexist system of society are the actual reasons to be concerned about.

One of the norms that are endorsed in schools via hidden curriculum is gender, and of course, stereotypical views of gender, which establish an interactive relationship with sexism. In this regard, Best (1983) describes the three areas that students are taught about gender as follows: the actual academic curriculum, through which students are exposed to gender typing of academic skills and gender biased materials, the behavioural curriculum, in which boys and girls engage in different activities, and lastly, sexual curriculum which indicates different roles for males and females such as “being careful” for girls and “getting it” for boys. Games and activities girls engage in such as playing house and hopscotch, tend to be verbal and cooperative whereas boys engage in more physical and competitive activities (Basow, 2004). Such segregation can be reinforced by teachers through the design of classroom activities based on gender-stereotyped assumptions, and by other children, either by ignoring to play with or be on the same team with the opposite sex.

Another factor that effectively transmits and contributes to these stereotypes is, of course, coursebooks, through which already-established gender roles and stereotypes are taught and reinforced. Representations of female and male characters through the texts and illustrations

in a coursebook play an important role in the process of the construction of gender identity and gender roles: they transfer values, attitudes, ideological messages role models through which students construct an understanding of these concepts. In sum, nearly all components of education are full of powerful messages that are obviously received by students and being aware of this influence education has while evaluating materials is of great importance.

2.8. Coursebooks

Functioning as a road map for both teachers and students, coursebooks are useful aids that provide information in a meaningful sequence with the assistance of spoken, written and visual materials that are preferably authentic. Generally, they present the content with relevant themes that are particularly chosen for the target learners, considering their academic level, interests and / or age. Moreover, consistency between levels is also easier to achieve if a coursebook set is adopted within a program (Gak, 2011). Besides, their major role as tools that help teachers reduce the time for preparation is also substantial in educational settings (Davcheva & Sercu, 2005). Most of the time, institutions depend on the syllabus of the coursebook they chose while arranging their programs, which helps them to follow whether the progress is in sync with their plan. Likewise, teachers plan their lessons according to the syllabus the coursebooks provide, as they reflect already-determined learning objectives and the content and activities offered correspond to those objectives.

Even though they are carefully prepared by professionals after an elaborative process of creation and editing and there are a wide variety of options to choose from, it is still not possible to find a perfect coursebook that does not require any kind of adaptation or that caters for all the needs of every learner group and teacher. Therefore, it is crucially important for teachers to make the necessary adaptations, although they seem very teacher-friendly with their attractive and well-organized layout and the supplementary photocopiable materials they offer.

Cunningsworth (1984) states that as long as they are carefully chosen and used, coursebooks from reputable publishers may serve teachers well, as they are “good servants, but poor masters”. In this sense, coursebooks ought to be thoroughly analyzed in order to determine if the content and the illustrations are fostering positive or negative attitudes about differences in gender, race, religion, ethnic groups, etc. as much as the presentation of academic content. Hence, the over-dependence on coursebooks leads to the risk of not being

in control of the messages, meanings and ideologies that are being transmitted within the content that supposedly offer factual knowledge.

2.9. The Construction of Gender Roles through Language Coursebooks and Hidden Curriculum

In language teaching, coursebooks are one of the most widely used educational materials (Henderson et al., 2012) as they function as a reference book for language and provide various alternatives for practice. English as a second language (hereafter referred as ESL) coursebooks are often evaluated with the language elements they provide; on the other hand, their influence in shaping the learner's idea of self and others has been overlooked. Coursebooks transfer a vast amount of modelling components by portraying people in different contexts and providing examples of the manners in which they communicate. Thus, learners are exposed to ideological contents, values, behaviours and gender representations through reading passages, illustrations, pictures, example sentences and discussion topics. Hence, the values and cultures that are promoted and developed with the texts, visuals and other media offered by language coursebooks significantly affect students' perceptions of and attitudes toward themselves and others. Doubtlessly, culture is a big part of language learning as language "has no function independently of the social contexts in which it is used" (Alptekin, 1993, p.141). Therefore, the reflection of the values, traditions and prejudices of the society are present in coursebooks (Söylemez, 2010). Accordingly, Sunderland (1992) suggests that when female characters engage in limited social, linguistic roles and represented unequally, cognitive and communicative empowerment is not likely for female learners and the marginalization of female characters in coursebooks may hinder their learning rather than facilitate it. Moreover, models of language provided by coursebooks and the classroom practice that characterized by male firstness may unconsciously fix learners' minds on language in practice such as initiating conversations (Sunderland, 1992), which may result in female students getting less practice than males.

2.10. Sexism and its Reflections on Language

Benokraitis & Feagin (1986) identify sexism in three types: blatant (or overt), covert and subtle sexism. Blatant sexism represents the unfair treatment of women relative to men that is apparent and observable and, covert sexism involves the unequal and harmful treatment

of women that is noticeable but in an intentionally hidden manner. To illustrate, individuals may think they do not hold sexist beliefs and are supporters of gender equality but in reality, they may engage in actions that deliberately sabotage women and lead them to be unsuccessful (Swim & Cohen, 1997). Lastly, subtle sexism represents the unfairness to women that is not intentional and goes unrecognized as it is perceived as customary and does not appear unusual to most people. Oftentimes, the power of subtle and constant sexism may be the most harmful but easy to underestimate as it insidiously exists in different aspects and details of life, including the language and it is more difficult to document as people may not consider certain behaviours as sexist or may not recognize them and as they do not regard these behaviours problematic, it is very likely for them to engage in such behaviours. Individuals may not realize that they treat people unequally or unfairly based on their gender (Swim & Cohen, 1997) as they do not openly indicate that they are in favour of traditional - stereotypical gender roles. That is the reason why identifying and coping with subtle sexism is much more difficult than blatant or covert sexism.

Being one of the primary agents that sustain and re-create a wide range of sexist notions, language leads people to inadvertently support sexism. Inherently, all speakers tend to use language in a convenient and effective manner that would help them convey their message efficiently. In order to achieve that, standardized usages of a language answer the purpose. The process of standardization was accelerated by the creation of dictionaries which were written by male authors (Porreca, 1984). As well as describing how words are used, a dictionary also prescribes how they are supposed to be used. Hence, the fact that English language is evolved through centuries of patriarchy and the dictionary writers were males who were in power and tend to preserve the norms, it resulted in the male dominance and the superiority in language (Miller & Swift, 1976).

A case in point, in a study conducted by Moulton, Robinson and Elias (1978, as cited in Porreca, 1984), students were asked to write an essay mentioned in the given sentences, which include a masculine generic (such as “he”) or a female inclusive pronoun. There were considerably more male subjects in the essays written in return for the sentence with a masculine generic than the other essays written in return for the sentence with a female inclusive pronoun, which indicates that generic usage of “he” does not really represent a female inclusiveness, as it is said so. In sum, sexist usages of English have been promoted and regarded as normal and standard, which influences individuals’ preferred speech

patterns, word choice, ways of talking that also contribute to the cognitive process of determining what is normal or standard.

2.10.1. Sexism in Language Coursebooks

Language coursebooks are the optimal transmitters of sexist notions with the content they provide the elements of language within. While teaching a language, certain perceptions, norms, viewpoints and elements of target culture are taught as well. As Sivaslıgil (2006) points out, images and illustrations in a coursebook impress especially young learners as much as written material in the process of making sense of the world. Thus, coursebooks, with the texts and visuals, are the most effective and prevalent means for transferring and maintaining a plethora of hidden messages and they ought to be examined and selected carefully.

Studies on gender representation in EFL coursebooks blossomed in the 1980s (Sunderland, 2000) and research has reported that there is inequality in gender representations and the distribution of occupations and personality traits. In this regard, one of the most widespread reflections of sexist attitudes encountered in coursebooks, omission, in other words the underrepresentation of female characters in texts or illustrations, implicitly transfer the interpretation that women or their accomplishments are not important enough to be involved (Porreca, 1984). In line with this argument, a thorough study examining 131 passages from 3 English language textbooks conducted by Hellinger (1980) revealed that males participated in over 93 percent of the texts while less than 30 percent of the text include females. When women appear less often than men in the texts and visuals, or they were frequently mentioned after men (such as male/female, men/women etc.), the second-place status of women in society is reinforced. It is possible to avoid this “male firstness” by making a little effort to mix the order of mention.

Another aspect in which learners’ perceptions are affected by sexism is the imbalanced portrayal of two genders in terms of occupations and the sorts of activities they engage in. Several studies indicated that girls were portrayed as whiny, dependent, fearful and not bright, where boys were more active and aggressive in the content of coursebooks. Arnold and Gerrity state that males were portrayed in paying occupations four times as many as females were, and women were mostly portrayed as engaged in household maintenance and domestic chores in which they happily serve their husbands and children (1978). In stories,

females often participate in secondary roles and they are less active, they even have less adventures than males and they appear to be more passive and dependent (Swann, 1992).

All in all, the sexism that students are exposed to within the texts and visuals through gender-biased and imbalanced representations of two genders in coursebooks and the frequent use of sexist language items support and recreate the traditional, sexist views regarding women's place in society and support gender bias. Therefore, the examination of language coursebooks in terms of the gender ideologies that are transferred to the learners serve to the aim of resisting the preservation and regeneration of sexist perceptions against women.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, it is aimed to introduce the coursebooks which constitute the data, present the research design and the methodology of the research conducted in the study in detail.

3.1. Research design

Research design is a plan that is designed or created specifically, in order to reach the aims and answer the questions in a research (Kerlinger, 1986). In order to ensure that the data that is collected would answer the questions and meet the needs efficiently, researchers ought to construct a target-driven framework by making use of appropriate and useful research methods and techniques. A careful selection of the suitable methods for a research study is determined by the questions that are aimed to be answered by the researcher. In this sense, research designs are mainly categorized into four based on the purpose of the research, such as experimental, quasi-experimental, correlational and descriptive, and three main methods are used in research: qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods.

This study aims to explore how genders are represented in English language coursebooks in terms of the portrayal of the two sexes with regard to the attribution of adjectives, social roles, occupations, personality traits and the balance of visibility through different parts and contexts in the book. In parallel with this objective, a qualitative research approach is employed as it is more suitable and applicable to the type of data to be examined. Qualitative research deals with documents, images, videos or scripts to be examined in detail. As Dörnyei (2007) states, in qualitative research, the main purpose is not proving any hypothesis before the collection of the data and its analysis. First, the data are collected and analysed thoroughly, then, an interpretation or a conclusion is made (Dörnyei, 2007), and during the data collection and analysis process, new ideas may emerge (Mackey & Gass, 2005).

In this study, through the use of descriptive content analysis method, the data collected are categorized in descriptive research design. Several definitions have been proposed to identify the nature of descriptive research. For Dulock (1993), one of the aims of descriptive research is to portray the characteristics of a particular situation, individual or groups of people in order to uncover the current state and determine the frequency of the occurrence of a particular phenomenon. Further to that, discovering the relationships between and among certain variables and documenting the facts and findings systematically (Dulock, 1993) may be considered as the objectives of descriptive research design.

In this study, the following research questions are aimed to be answered:

1. How are genders represented in the written materials of EFL coursebooks used in tertiary level language education in Turkey?

- Is the image of women represented equally within the social and cultural contexts of the EFL coursebooks used in tertiary level language education in Turkey?

2. Is there a fair distribution in terms of the attributions of:

- occupations,
- adjectives,
- crime,
- sports,
- household responsibilities in the written materials of the coursebooks?

3. Are there any elements of gender stereotypes or discrimination in terms of the portrayals of females and males in the contexts and co-texts of the coursebooks?

3.2. Data Sources

This study analyses the gender bias in two different sets of English coursebooks that are used in tertiary level language education in various state universities in Turkey. Analysis of coursebooks is the core of the study as they are the main instruments of language teaching and they play a significant role as they introduce the elements of target language within contexts, in which ideologies and the hidden messages about accepted and expected norms and behaviours of the target culture may be presented.

In Turkey, students of English-medium universities are supposed to prove a certain level of English proficiency with a test score before they commence their education in their faculties. Accordingly, a proficiency exam is conducted by the institutions for the new students at the beginning of each academic year. The students that cannot get the required score have to attend a year of intensive English program to improve their four language skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking) and strategies that would assist them to deal with their departmental studies and future careers. The coursebooks that are examined in this study are widely used in the language programs that is provided by the universities, called as “preparatory programs” in which students get comprehensive English education for a whole academic year. Regarding the age average of the students starting university being very young (around eighteen), the selection of coursebooks requires the consideration of various factors including the appropriateness and novelty of the themes and topics as the books would be the main source of material for the transfer of target culture and values as well as the language itself.

Two sets of coursebooks that are used in this study, Face2Face by Cambridge University Press (hereafter referred as Set A) and Speakout by Pearson Education Limited (hereafter referred as Set B), are A2 (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages or “CEFR”) and B1 (CEFR) level student’s books covering the four main skills (speaking, listening, reading and writing) and three sub-skills (grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation) and they are published from different international publishing houses. The books in both sets present 10-12 theme-based units with different sections that focus on different aspects of language. The syllabi of the books follow a cyclical (or spiral) manner in which the learning is modeled to reflect the natural process of learning a language; the same things turn up in different combinations and meanings. This means language points are presented in different (in time, more detailed and complex) manners again and again in order to create a permanent learning (Munby, 1981).

Set A comes with interactive CD-ROMs that include video materials, games, and customizable tests. There are video-based sections in every unit that provide students with the opportunity to interact with practical uses of language. Most of the visuals and short listening tracks, on the other hand, are conversations and situations that are happening among a group of friends. Likewise, each level of the books in Set B comes with a software that includes all the material of the book and the audio / video content that are designed to be

used in the units, as well as additional materials such as games and other tools that can be used in the classroom. The multimedia materials are also provided to the students' use with the student's books (with a CD) which includes all the e-book content and allow students to make the most of the book outside of classroom as well as during lessons. Language functions such as "making a request" are presented and practiced with short listening tracks that are not contextually connected to each other.

3.3. Data Collection and Analysis

This study aims to analyse the written content of the coursebooks that are chosen to identify how genders are represented, and to see if there are stereotyped depictions that would promote conventional images of genders. Within this framework, as a research method, this study made use of content analysis, which is employed in order to make valid inferences about the senders of the message in a text, the recipient of it or the message itself (Weber, 1990). In this regard, Hsieh and Shannon (2005, p.1278) define qualitative content analysis as "a method for the subjective interpretation of the content of text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns". The rationale behind using qualitative content analysis in this study is that it goes beyond simply counting and it allows the researcher to analyse textual information systematically and classifying it into categories representing similar meanings. (Weber, 1990).

Written content analysis allows the researcher to establish a basis for the analysis of words, scripts, linguistic patterns, dialogues or any other type of written texts. As Marshall and Rossmann (2016) state, for content analysis, the raw material can be any form of communication, including the written materials (textbooks, newspapers, e-mails), and other forms of communication (music or pictures). In this study, the coursebooks used in tertiary level language education and the written texts in the coursebooks are examined as the raw material for the content analysis. In this regard, the written materials of chosen coursebooks are examined and categories are formed by the researcher.

In order to improve the credibility in the analysis of the data, peer debriefing is employed. As Barber and Walczak (2009) stated, peer debriefing is a broadly accepted and encouraged technique to increase the reliability of the data in content analysis studies. Correspondingly, the researcher collects and interprets the data, and the other researchers who are the peer debriefers provide a helpful second view on the interpretation of the data, the categories that

are proposed and the emerging theory (Barber & Walczak, 2009). During the data analysis process, the categories that are created by the researcher are checked and verified with the help of two other researchers in the institution that the coursebooks examined in the study are used in.

3.3.1. Categories for Content Analysis

Krippendorff (1980) describes content analysis as a research method that allows researchers to analyse textual information systematically and make standardized interpretations. As the core of this analysing process, categorization is the grouping of the words and phrases that possess similar meanings and connotations (Weber, 1990). Four of the categories that are investigated in this research (attributions of occupations, adjectives, sports and household activities) are inspired by the categories that are created by other researchers and examined in previous studies (Helvacioğlu, 1996; Arslan, 2000; Sivaslıgil, 2006) and attribution of crime is determined by the researcher. These categories are briefly described in the following sections.

3.3.1.1. Occupations Assigned to Males and Females

In regard to sexist ideology, being a woman is defined according to men in all areas of life; it means not to behave in ways that are deemed specific to men and to determine one's thoughts and emotions according to men (Helvacioğlu, 1996). Women is expected to select professions that would not cause a problem for their family, in other words, their primary duty (Helvacioğlu, 1996) as wives and mothers. According to Parkin (1971), it is a long-established consensus that occupations are the most determining indications of social status and life chances in industrial societies. In this sense, it can be claimed with confidence that occupations mean more than just the work or activities that individuals do for a living. In language coursebooks, male and female characters are portrayed in various occupational activities; however, as Helvacioğlu (1996) claims, the depictions of male and female characters in terms of occupations seem to be bolstering the idea that some professions are gender-specific or traditionally related to one gender rather than the other. Therefore, this study investigates whether one gender is portrayed in a wide range of occupations while the other is not represented as much. Another aspect that is under question in this study is the types of occupations that males and females are represented with, in terms of their

association with males and females. The studies Helvacioğlu (1996) and Arslan (2000) conducted are taken as reference for the list of occupations that are traditionally assigned to a certain gender.

3.3.1.2. Attribution of Adjectives

Like other indicators such as occupations that are assigned to males and females, adjectives that are chosen to describe these characters represent the way the society perceives them; or the way they are promoted to be perceived by the decision makers of educational operations. In this study, the adjectives and implicit descriptors that are used to portray men and women physically, socially and emotionally are investigated thoroughly.

3.3.1.3. Attribution of Crime

Stereotyping of genders through the contexts of coursebooks takes place bidirectionally. It has come to the attention of the researcher that, the examples, passages and contexts which are related to crime have a tendency to be storified with mostly male characters where females are generally shown as victims. According to Lindsey (2015), crime is “a highly gendered activity”. Social Learning Theory suggests men to possess masculine traits such as being physically active and aggressive. They learn to be more autonomous and act impulsively, moreover, they are allowed to do so. Women, on the other hand, are taught and reinforced to be more passive and nice, which possibly result in lower crime rates and statistically, women being much more law-abiding citizens than men. Relevant research indicate a narrowing in the gender gap in crime rates since the 1950s-60s in many countries including England, Canada and the United States (Box & Hale, 1983; Fox & Hartnagel, 1970; Steffensmeier, 1993; as cited in Heimer & De Coster, 2001). Several hypotheses are proposed in order to provide an explanation for this phenomenon, such as the *economic marginalization hypothesis*, suggesting that the escalation in the financial difficulties (e.g. gender-based wage gap) women encounter, and *decline of chivalry hypothesis*, suggesting a decrease in the reluctance of law enforcement officers to uphold law against women (e.g. hesitation to arrest), and so on (Heimer & De Coster, 2001).

Another aspect that needs to be taken into consideration is that even though women commit a crime, they do not suffer the legal consequences as much as men (Lindsey, 2015). The inclination for viewing women as helpless, needy and victimized persons and men as

convicts bolster the double standard that is harmful for both parties. In line with this perspective, as an interesting and yet another important indicator of the way society perceives men and women, attributions of crime are analyzed rigorously.

3.1.3.4. Activities Related to Sports

Attribution of activities related to sports is another aspect in which sexism occurs. Since the very early phases of childhood, children are raised with the idea of associating manhood and masculinity with activeness, risk-taking and being tough (Lindsey, 2015) whereas sedateness and being passive are associated with femininity (Hellinger, 1980). Boys and girls are expected to do, enjoy and accomplish different things and different sports as well. Therefore, the in/equality in the representation of two genders in sports activities in coursebooks tells a lot about the expectations, attributed and promoted personality traits and characteristics of males and females.

3.1.3.5. Household Activities and Responsibilities

“Each day the kitchen teaches her patience and passivity; here is alchemy; one must obey the fire, the water, wait for the sugar to melt, for the dough to rise, and also for the wash to dry, for the fruits to ripen on the shelf.” (De Beauvoir, 1949, p.568)

Roles, tasks and duties about the household and family to maintain life around the house, such as cooking, cleaning, shopping, parenting etc., which are attributed to males and females show a great deal of gender roles that are endorsed by curriculum and policy makers. Even toys for girls and boys are designed with the intention of maintaining the same structure again and again through generations. Boys play with race cars, guns and trains, while girls' games consist of mothering, cooking, cleaning and hairstyling (Lindsey, 2015) – in other words, doing “girly” things. In this sense, the examples in which male and female characters are represented around the house and the chores that they are shown to undertake indicate a great deal of the manner in which society praises them to behave and responsibilities that they are assumed to take on. Therefore, the tasks and activities around the household that are associated with men and women in the coursebooks are counted and analysed rigorously.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS & DISCUSSION

In this chapter, the findings obtained from the content analysis of the books are presented and discussed according to the categories that are set and defined in the previous chapter.

4.1. Occupations Assigned to Males and Females

Table 1

Occupations Assigned to Males and Females in Set A (A2)

OCCUPATIONS		
Male	Female	Male & Female
Chef	Works in a factory	Businessperson
Entrepreneur	Works in a museum shop	Works in an office
Advertiser	Restaurant manager	Celebrity lookalike
Lawyer	Cleaner	Actor / Actress
Football referee	Works in a bank	Works in fashion
Engineer	Receptionist	Teacher
Writer	Florist	
Traffic police	Salesperson	
Works in shipbuilding industry	Model	
Director in a charity	Paramedic	
Graffiti artist		
Inventor		
Interpreter		
Boss		
Radio DJ		

Table 2

Occupations Assigned to Males and Females in Set A (B1)

OCCUPATIONS		
Male	Female	Male & Female
Sailing instructor	Yoga Instructor	Restaurant owner
Works for a tour company	Teacher	Writer
Photographer	Child education counsellor	Works in an office
Blogger	Company director	Doctor
Website designer	Journalist	Actor / Actress
Tour guide	Work at a gallery	Musician
Hotel manager	Athlete	Hotel owner
Swimmer	Advertising	
Magician	Singer	
Sales manager		
Comics writer		
Mountain climber		
Footballer		
Art gallery manager		
Entrepreneur		
Sculpturer		
Works for a watersports company		
Producer		
Scientist		
Union leader		

Table 3

Occupations Assigned to Males and Females in Set B (A2)

OCCUPATIONS		
Male	Female	Male & Female
Furniture company owner	Works in a supermarket	Writer
Mountain rescue worker	Personal trainer	TV presenter
Manager of an online business	Bookstore owner	Teacher
Inventor	Nanny	Entrepreneur
Painter	Nurse	Millionaire
Works at a café	Bus driver	Actor / Actress
Tour guide	Blogger	Singer
Travel writer	Accountant	
Doctor	Receptionist	
Machine operator	Personal assistant	
Architect	Housewife	
Plumber	Politician	
Sales assistant	Veterinary Surgeon	
Chef		
Bank manager		
Internet company owner		
Economist		
Firefighter		
Research biologist		
Soldier		
Bodyguard		
Repairman		
Journalist		
Concierge		
Race driver		
TV producer		
Boss		
Veterinarian		
Judge		
Jockey		
Motorcycle courier		
Waiter		
Footballer		
Rocket Scientist		

Table 4

Occupations Assigned to Males and Females in Set B (B1)

OCCUPATIONS		
Male	Female	Male & Female
Painter	Ice-cream tester	Teacher
Software company owner	Personal shopper	Actor / Actress
Businessman	Gymnast	Writer
Millionaire	Dancer	TV presenter
Astronaut	Model	Boss
Physicist	Personal Assistant	Entrepreneur
Video Creator	Accountant	Footballer
Postmen	Caregiver	Tour Guide
Firefighter	Film Historian	President
Lifeguard	Anthropologist	Leader
Gym Instructor		Civil Rights Activist
Basketball player		
Professor		
Publisher		
Artist		
Biologist		
Climber		
Tennis player		
Historian		
Scientist		
Inventor		
Explorer		
Window cleaner		
Musician		

As stated earlier, the occupations assigned to male and female characters in the coursebooks may shed a light on the expectations of the society, in other words, which jobs are regarded as “appropriate” for men and women. The tables above present the occupations that men and women are identified with in the two sets of coursebooks. While Set A features male characters in 35 different occupations, the number of jobs that only women are exemplified with is 20. Likewise, in set B, 58 jobs are for males while females are portrayed in 23 of them. Males are portrayed within a wide variety of jobs such as graffiti artists, advertisers, radio DJs, astronauts, race drivers and even rocket scientists, whereas women are generally nurses, nannies, personal assistants and housewives, with a few exceptions such as a bus driver, anthropologist and a politician. It can be inferred from the tables above that the case is not so different for both coursebook sets. Men are inventors, scientists, entrepreneurs and company owners; not even one woman is portrayed in such contexts. In general, the occupations that require mathematical intelligence, physical power and courage such as a mountain rescue worker, firefighter, soldier, engineer and professional sportsperson are all assigned to males. Contrastively, the occupations that females are shown with only require

nurturance and caring such as nanny, caregiver and nurse. Other than that, females perform simple, noncomplicated and sometimes “absurd” jobs, such as an ice-cream tester, personal shopper and assistant, and receptionist. Further to that, males are default subjects while setting examples about work in the examples and passages provided in Set B. In one instance, right after the information about average work hours per week is given, the average for men is mentioned and it is pointed out that 1 out of 8 fathers can see their children only at the weekend. Another notable instance is that, as a sentence example for the phrase “take over”, “men taking over their father’s job” is given as if the workforce is about men, and men only.

Findings of both sets indicate biased and sexist gender representations in terms of both the occurrence and types of occupations that are assigned to males and females. With insignificant exceptions, females are either underrepresented in the field of work or they are occupied with noncomplex or rather unimportant jobs compared to men. Even though they are not very young learners, these coursebooks assist learners sort out their understanding of identities, provide a vision of what is (and obviously, is not) achievable for them in the future. Considering the average age (for Turkey, first year students are generally 17-18) of the users and the expectations of them to fulfil their potentials and set objectives, the learners are open to grasp any inspiration for the future; including the representations that may spark their possible career aspirations. In this sense, the examples that are set for the contexts in both sets are frustrating and disappointingly sexist.

In short, in addition to the fact that females are represented in occupational activities half as much as males, when they are, the occupations that they are shown with are mostly stereotyped ones. In the light of these findings, it is seen that both coursebook sets fail to represent two genders fairly in terms of occupational visibility and the fair distribution of occupations, which strengthen the idea that some areas of work are gender specific. To conclude, biased views of gender are promoted by both the attributions of occupations and contexts of the examples in Set A and Set B.

4.2. Attribution of Adjectives

Table 5

Attribution of Adjectives in Set A (A2)

ADJECTIVES		
Male	Female	Male & Female
Interested	Worried	Nice
Chatty	Happy	Moody
Boring	Excited	Easygoing
Noisy	Depressed	Confident
Helpful	Annoyed	Bright
Lazy x2	Stressed	
Sensible	Easygoing	
Patient	Upset	
Polite	Strange	
Impolite	Considerate	
	Selfish	
	Tidy	
	Organized	

Table 6

Attribution of Adjectives in Set A (B1)

ADJECTIVES		
Only Male	Only Female	Male & Female
Boring	Knowledgeable	Bored
Relaxed	Fantastic	
Mean x3	Reliable	
Careful	Sociable	
	Fashionable	
	Well-qualified	
	Worried	
	Annoyed	
	Shocked	

Table 7

Attribution of Adjectives in Set B (A2)

ADJECTIVES		
Only Male	Only Female	Male & Female
Frightened	Poor	Worried
Ugly	Thin	Angry
Polite	Nervous	
Adventurous	Annoyed	
Dangerous	Very nice	
	Generous	
	Competitive	
	Excited	

Table 8

Attribution of Adjectives in Set B (B1)

ADJECTIVES		
Only Male	Only Female	Male & Female
Adventurous	Furious	Bored
Genius	Intelligent	Successful
Cheerful	Energetic	Determined
Happy	World-class	Expert
Bright	Angry	Skillful
Aggressive	Independent	Talented
Depressed	Easy-going	Reliable
Frustrated	Moody	Hardworking
Irresponsible	Keen	
	Afraid	
	Happy	
	Immature	
	Talkative	
	Lovely	
	Sorry	

Adjectives that are used to describe males and females in the contexts and co-texts of the coursebooks may be important indicators of the characteristics that are pre-determined by the cultural norms that aim to teach them how to behave, speak and think as males and females. In the coursebooks, the adjectives that show emotional (aggressive, depressed, determined, happy, excited, moody etc.) and physical (ugly, thin, etc.) states that portray the characters can be strong depictions of society's idea of how men and women are expected to act, feel and look like. As can be seen from Table 5 and 6 above, adjectives that are explicitly attributed to females and males in the coursebooks do not establish a significant difference in the characterization of males and females in terms of gender stereotyping. Unlike biased descriptions, "strong, reliable and hardworking" characters are not just males. However, the moves that are presented lead the readers to a different direction. Implications in the discussion topics, example situations and sentences in both sets strongly promote stereotypical gender descriptions. It is implied that women may not be as good drivers as men, they are wonderful hostesses and they unreasonably love shopping; in contrast to men, they often cause problems for themselves and others because of their irresponsible shopping habits. Another example in an interview conducted with a male and female character in Set B, they are asked, if they could be famous for something, what they would be famous for and what they would do. Male character replies as he would be famous for inventing something, like a medicine, and he would be happy with making people's lives easier. On

the other hand, female character responds as: if she could be famous for something, it would be for being beautiful. She adds, she would also be rich, therefore she would have all sorts of clothes. Her idea of being famous only contains beauty, money and clothes, which supports the impression that females are shallow individuals whereas males are more sensible and down-to-earth.

In a reading passage that reports “genetic” differences between men and women according to people’s suggestions in Set B, most of the sentences characterize women as organized (about household activities), shrewd people who care a lot about clothing and haircuts, who speaks a lot and are good with emotions, as opposed to men who are not picky about anything including their physical comfort, haircut or clothing. They do not speak a lot or care much, and they do not know how to deal with emotions.

As another notable example of sexist depictions of gender in Set A, a character talks about her aunt, who is her richest relative and has got the biggest house she has ever seen. However, her life is “quite sad” and “a bit strange” as she never got married for the reason that she thought men would want her only for money, and lives in that big house on her own. The fact that an adult woman who has a lot of money and a very big house is all alone with no man to share it all with is enough to call her life sad and strange.

In summary, the tables and examples provided above have shown that although the explicit usage of adjectives do not indicate traces of gender biased perceptions, in the sub-texts of passages and dialogues present negative connotations and stereotyped attributions of characteristics are considerably prevalent.

4.3. Attribution of Crime

Table 9

Attribution of Crime in Set A (A2)

CRIME	
Males	Females
Victim x1	Victim x2
Burglary x4	Murder x1
Robbery x5	
Vandalism	
Theft x3	

Table 10

Attribution of Crime in Set A (B1)

CRIME	
Males	Females
Arrested x2	Victim
Smuggle	
Robbery	
Threatening	

Table 11

Attribution of Crime in Set B (A2)

CRIME	
Males	Females
Arrested	Arrested x2
Imposture	Shoplifting
Shoplifting	Vandalism
Theft x5	Victim
Unidentified crime x3	
Vandalism	
Breaking in	
Murder	

Table 12

Attribution of Crime in Set B (B1)

CRIME	
Males	Females
Assassination	
Stealing x3	Victim
Breaking in x2	
Robbery	

Patriarchal definitions of gender portray “ideal and feminine” woman with a high capacity for passiveness, nurturance and passivity whereas masculinity is associated with competitiveness, activeness, power and aggressiveness. As well as the attribution of occupations and descriptors used for females and males, the positioning of gender in contexts related to crime is an important indicator of women’s place in social life. Obviously, statistics indicate that men commit more serious or violent crimes than women, or the arrest ratio of male/female is four to one (Lindsey, 2015), however, the reason behind the fact that women do not engage in criminal activity as much as men is probably that they are not raised or allowed to be violent, physically expressive or spontaneous. Though, statistics indicate an

increase in the crime rates in the 1950s – 1960s (Box & Hale, 1983; Fox & Hartnagel, 1970; Steffensmeier, 1993; as cited in Heimer & De Coster, 2001). Relevant literature has proposed several explanations from social-psychological aspects for the rarity of crime followed by an increase, such as the impact of gender roles (girls' inclination to delinquency is not influenced by familial supervision as much as boys, they are rather influenced by internal factors), the *economic marginalization hypothesis* (suggesting the financial difficulties women face stemming from the wage gap between men and women as a factor in the increase of female crime rates), and the *decline of chivalry hypothesis* (suggesting the hesitation of law enforcement officers towards women as a factor in the increase of female crime rates) (Heimer & De Coster, 2001). Tables above illustrate the reflection of the perception that assume females to have characteristics that are conventionally agreed on. In both sets of coursebooks, especially in Set A, where male characters are portrayed in different types of crime including burglary, robbery, vandalism, smuggling and threatening, females are always the victims with only one exception. As well as being criminals, men are the suspects too. In the co-texts of Set A, all the people that are questioned and arrested by the police are males, supporting the notion of men being impulsive, active and aggressive characters by nature. Set B, on the other hand, is a bit more different in terms of the distribution of crime between the two genders. Nonetheless, women are seen as convicts of crimes such as shoplifting and vandalism whereas men are murderers, impostors and assassins. Figures show that hegemonic and traditional gender views imposing males and females certain behavioural expectations are reproduced and perpetuated in both sets. Women are not as dangerous, physical or terrifying creatures as men; they are helpless, innocuous individuals that may only need help and protection from dangerous, harmful creatures called men.

4.4. Attribution of Sports

Table 13

Attribution of Sports in Set A (A2)

SPORTS	
Males	Females
In sports x8	In sports x3

Table 14

Attribution of Sports in Set A (B1)

SPORTS	
Males	Females
In sports x7	In sports x2

Table 15

Attribution of Sports in Set B (A2)

SPORTS	
Males	Females
In sports x14	In sports x10

Table 16

Attribution of Sports in Set B (B1)

SPORTS	
Males	Females
In sports x9	In sports x5

As can be seen from the data in the tables above, males are shown in sports (39 times) twice as much than females (20 times) in the coursebook sets. In addition to the information in the tables, it is strongly implied in the contexts and discussion topics that men are more interested and better in sports than women. According to Gender Schema Theory (Bem, 1983) children are taught to fit in to their roles since they are infants; they create their “schema” by interpreting and coding certain traits and behaviours as “feminine” and “masculine”. Males are more visible in the activities related to sports; therefore, they are more associated with physical activities that may require being active and competitive.

Lindsey (2015) suggests that children associate sports with masculinity, risk-taking and physical harm. Likewise, boys and girls are expected to fulfil certain roles and stereotypical characteristics and accordingly predispose their behaviours. When they behave in ways that violate these stereotypes, they are often ridiculed or questions are raised about their conformity to standards of their gender (Chinurum et al., 2014). In the light of these information, it is not a surprise that most sports are perceived as “male” sports (boxing, football, hockey, skiing); while females are thought to be more “suitable” to sports such as dancing, gymnastics, pilates, etc. As they are not really associated with being active, competitive and tough, it is not expected from them to engage in sports activities as much as

males. Accordingly, both coursebook sets seem to fail in representing males and females equally in the contexts that are related to sports.

4.5. Attribution of Household Activities and Responsibilities

Table 17

Attribution of Household Activities in Set A (A2)

HOUSEHOLD ACTIVITIES		
Males	Females	Males & Females
Packing up bags	Cleaning x5 Looking after children	Cooking x1 / x5

Table 18

Attribution of Household Activities in Set A (B1)

HOUSEHOLD ACTIVITIES		
Males	Females	Males & Females
Taking out trash	Shopping Tidying up Looking after children	Cooking

Table 19

Attribution of Household Activities in Set B (A2)

HOUSEHOLD ACTIVITIES		
Males	Females	Males & Females
Ironing Washing	Cooking	Looking after children

Table 20

Attribution of Household Activities in Set B (B1)

HOUSEHOLD ACTIVITIES		
Males	Females	Males & Females
Taking out trash	Shopping Cleaning	Looking after children

Roles and tasks around the household that are performed in order to maintain the life and well-being of family members contain physically demanding activities including cooking, cleaning, shopping, ironing and looking after children, which are mostly considered as

“women’s work” (Helvacioğlu, 1996; Arslan, 2000) and they are traditionally taught to get satisfaction from these labour around the house. Men, on the other hand, are responsible for the chores outside the house, such as mending, gardening and maybe shopping. Even though they are employed and making money, significantly greater share of the housework is still undertaken by women, and men are placed as “helpers” rather than equal members who are in charge. Responsibilities of men are generally “time-limited or seasonal”, such as car maintenance, shovelling snow, hanging curtains or taking out trash. The information provided in the tables above shows that the division of housework between males and females in the Set A seemingly supportive of and superimpose the traditional views that are mentioned earlier. In Set A, males are only taking out trash, packing up bags and cooking (once), while women are cleaning, taking care of the children and doing the shopping. Set B, on the other hand, has a bit more balanced distribution when compared to Set A. Both parties are seen as responsible for taking care of the children and cooking. Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1977) suggest that children take after their parents while constructing their gender identity; they tend to observe and imitate their same-sex parent while learning and internalizing their roles. Therefore, the division of chores around the house is not only about the adults and is not something that is decided by partners, it is learned and acknowledged way earlier in childhood. In this sense, fostering the idea of housework being women’s work should be avoided.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

In this chapter of the study, the conclusions drawn from the discussion of the findings are provided in relation to the research questions. In the light of the findings, the implications for the selection and production of coursebooks are presented.

5.1. Conclusion

This study is carried out under the guidance of the research aims that are specified in line with the research questions. In order to disclose the gender representations and possible gender bias in the coursebooks that are used in tertiary level English language education, the written contents of the coursebooks are examined thoroughly. Considering the nature of the data, a descriptive research method is applied and the content is analyzed under five categories, some of which are inspired by previous research.

The research questions that are investigated in this study are as follows:

1. How are genders represented in the written materials of EFL coursebooks used in tertiary level language education in Turkey?

- Is the image of women represented equally within the social and cultural contexts of the EFL coursebooks used in tertiary level language education in Turkey?

2. Is there a fair distribution in terms of the attributions of:

- occupations,
- adjectives,
- crime,
- sports,
- household responsibilities in the written materials of the coursebooks?

3. Are there any elements of gender stereotypes or discrimination in terms of the portrayals of females and males in the contexts and co-texts of the coursebooks?

As provided in the previous chapters, a couple of theories are proposed in an attempt to explain the process of constructing gender identity. In the first years of childhood, individuals become aware of the two sexes and begin to create gender identity; they learn to associate certain characteristics, behaviours and attitudes with males and females and code them as appropriate or inappropriate. Facilitated through different agents and factors such as biology, personality, family and other social institutions; the process of gender construction is attempted to be clarified with different approaches which emphasize different agents as central. One of the initial theories of gender construction, Freudian theories (otherwise known as Psychodynamic-Psychoanalytic theories) assert that gender development is a biologically driven and unintentional process (Lindsey, 2015). In contrast with psychodynamic-psychoanalytic theories, cognitive developmental theory explains gender construction as a cognitive process that is established according to the level of the child's cognitive maturation. Grounded on Piaget's work, this theory suggests that behaviour is dependent on how a social situation is comprehended cognitively by the individual: once the concept of gender constancy is achieved, children endeavour to act only in the ways that are appropriate to their gender. This "reciprocal interplay" of an individual's thinking of themselves as a boy or girl and attempting to behave accordingly develop and sustain gender constancy (Bandura & Bussey, 1999), which functions as a process of self-socialization that assist gender construction.

Appearing to be providing the most fruitful explanation in the gender construction theories and as a subcategory of cognitive development, gender schema theory suggests that gender is a concept that is both internally and socially constructed by individuals. The latter is mainly based on rewards and punishments that are focused on reinforcing the modeling of desired behaviour patterns and reprimanding the unwanted ones, so that boys and girls learn to behave the way they ought to. While these reinforcements and reprimands directly teach children to be "boys" and "girls", indirect learning of gender roles occurs through observation and imitation of others (Bandura & Walters, 1977) which are indicatives of a cognitive process occurring in the background. That being the case, gender schema theory is decided to provide the ground for the analysis in this study and in doing so, gender

representations in coursebooks in terms of balance, visibility and preservation of restrictive traditional gender roles are evaluated.

In the light of the findings that are discussed in the previous chapter, it is seen that females are less visible and when they are represented, they are substantially featured in a limited number of occupations which are rather simple and associated with nurturance, with only a few exceptions. This promotes the interpretation that it is not appropriate or desirable for females to be involved in a wide variety of occupational activities like males. Considering the function and capacity of coursebooks to provide learners with visions of what future may have in store for them and to facilitate the process of setting goals (Wilson, 1993), whether all learners are receiving equal opportunities in order to shape future aspirations including their future careers becomes a significant area in which gender stereotypes operate. In this regard, both coursebook sets seem to support and regenerate gender stereotypes predominantly.

In terms of the attribution of adjectives, the distribution between the two genders appears to be rather balanced. On the other hand, the implicit messages about gender representations that are transmitted through the contexts and co-texts are undoubtedly standing at the biased end. Stereotypical depictions of genders are everywhere: women can't drive, men can; women are not interested in sports, men are; women love shopping, men don't; women are natural born housemakers, men are not. The frequent portrayal of males as self-sufficient, sensible and down-to-earth characters who are more mature and trustworthy than women in the sub-texts preserve biased and unfair ascriptions that sabotage women in every area of life. The representations in the sub-texts of the books exemplify and promote stereotypical views that are strong endorsements for misleading and restricting gender portrayals of women, despite not being done explicitly -which may worsen the harm even more as it becomes more difficult to discern before internalizing.

Another aspect that is under question in this study is the attribution of activities related to crime. Both coursebook sets associate crime, danger and violence with males, whereas females are mostly victims or convicts of non-violent or rather unharmed crimes such as shoplifting. A possible reason behind of this phenomenon might be the perception that women are supposed to be harmless and fragile characters who would or could not hurt anyone acutely, whereas men can be threatening and deceitful. Considering the impact of learned behaviours and the tendency to meet the expectations of the group an individual

belongs to, the inclination and maybe recklessness of males to commit more harmful crimes than females in reality and the reflections of this matter in the coursebooks may be functioning as a reinforcement.

As indicated in the previous chapter, attribution of activities related to sports is another angle in which biased gender representations are encountered. Female characters are far less visible than male characters in sports, stemming from the perception that views women as gentle, subordinate and passive in contrast to men, who supposedly possess masculine characteristics including competitiveness, aggression and physical strength. Regarding the sports that seem to be more aggressive and physically demanding as suitable for only men and excluding women in such activities probably result from the traditional, biased view of associating femininity and females with being vulnerable and incompetent; therefore, not being adequate for “sports” sports.

In terms of the attribution of activities related to the maintenance of life around the household, including tasks like cooking, doing the dishes, taking care of children and tidying up, it seems that most of the time they fall upon female characters. Especially in Set A, the fact that women are working outside the house and making money makes no difference; a plethora of housework appear to be the domain of females. Standpoint of Set B, on the other hand, is a bit more merciful than Set A. The representation of male / female characters as the family member who carries out the responsibilities of parenthood seems to be more balanced in Set B. In this sense, it is safe to say that even though it is possible to encounter some exceptions, the equilibrium of gender representations in terms of parental activities and tasks related to household were mostly for the benefit of male characters. Women clean, bake, mend, wash, mother; men occasionally help. Even though the image of women in real life has changed drastically over the course of many years, the change is still not reflected in the gender portrayals of coursebooks.

All things considered, the results that are obtained from the content analysis of coursebooks revealed that the coursebooks that are under investigation present imbalanced depictions of gender roles under almost all categories examined in this study. Female characters are underrepresented in terms of occupational activities, and when they are, they are mostly occupied with rather simple, noncomplicated and stereotyped jobs. Professions that are more interesting, demanding and socially beneficial are mostly associated with men. Females are depicted as characters who are not really interested in sports, who find happiness in marriage,

a fit figure, shopping and taking care of their family. While men are portrayed as active, autonomous and sometimes aggressive individuals; women are physically and socially passive, shallow and needy in general. In this regard, both coursebook sets appear to strengthen stereotypical views of gender with only a few exceptions.

5.2. Implications for English Language Teaching

Relevant literature that is also presented in this study indicates that gender roles are constructed and internalized through the agencies of socialization that consist of components like family and school, which are the prominent environments that an individual learn how to behave, think and develop characteristics. Family and school are the two most important mediums that operate in concert to form and raise individuals to properly match the “needs” of society. Constituting the nucleus of schools, coursebooks are the core materials that present and preserve the values, roles and other components of culture that are expected to be adopted by the future members of society in order to sustain what is usual and to keep the wheels turning. There emerges the importance of coursebooks: the writers, policy makers and those in charge of choosing them to be put into practice. In this regard, whether the content of the coursebooks reflect genders fairly or any kind of sexism is manifested or not should be one of the main concerns in the selection of coursebooks as well as their academic content. These concerns are not only for those who select and use it, but also coursebook writers and policy makers ought to be responsible of and explicit about the motives they overtly or blatantly serve for. Eliminating all reflections of stereotypes from coursebooks is of utmost importance as the purpose of education is to equally provide individuals with the opportunity to develop and prosper and to become functioning members of society; not to preserve traditional and biased expectations. To that end, it should be ensured that coursebook writers, editors, illustrators, publishing houses or others that are responsible for the production of coursebooks exercise due care in avoiding biased and imbalanced gender representations. Furthermore, those in charge of the selection and the utilization of instructional materials should adopt a critical approach towards the content and activities that coursebooks provide; whether they link traditional roles to particular characters and present genders restrictively or unevenly.

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